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SIXTH MEETING OF THE MINISTERIAL
FOLLOW-UP COMMITTEE OF TEN OF THE
CONFERENCE OF MINISTERS RESPONSIBLE
FOR HUMAN RESOURCES PLANNING,
DEVELOPMENT AND UTILIZATION
21 November 1991

REPORT TO THE MINISTERIAL FOLLOW-UP COMMITTEE OF TEN OF THE CONFERENCE OF MINISTERS RESPONSIBLE FOR HUMAN RESOURCES PLANNING, DEVELOPMENT AND UTILISATION ON THE STATUS, POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES OF HUMAN RESOURCES PLANNING, DEVELOPMENT AND UTILISATION IN AFRICA

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INTRODUCTION

1. Many countries in Africa have come to appreciate the fact that human resources are of critical importance to socio-economic recovery and long-term development. This realisation emanates from the nature and extent of the socio-economic crisis that engulfed the African continent in the 1980s. To-date,

> *more than half of the population [in sub-Saharan Africa] has no access to public health services .... Almost two-thirds lack safe drinking water .... It is estimated that 100 million people were unemployed in 1989 -- four times as many as in 1979 .... In addition, another 100 million people were underemployed. Real wages are falling: by 30% between 1980 and 1989.*[1]

2. The nature and extent of the crisis has also been documented elsewhere[2] and of interest to us in this paper is that in the wake of such a crisis, many governments in Africa have sought, at least on paper, to integrate human resources issues such as education, training and employment; public health and sanitation; social welfare and services; etc. in the national development planning process. Further, human resources development is being oriented towards making it relevant to the diverse development objectives and, thereby, to widening the skilled labour base that is necessary for socio-economic development and transformation. To-date, however, the problems of human resources development and utilization continue to afflict many countries in Africa. In particular, many countries still continue to prefer expatriates at the expense of well qualified nationals and hence the problem of brain drain; the employment-creation capacity of the modern sector has stagnated; there is little or no co-ordination among the institutions charged with human resources matters; human resources issues are not advocated at the highest decision-making level; labour market

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[1] UNDP, Human Development Report 1991, p. 36.

[2] See, for example, United Nations, International Conference on the Human Dimension of Africa's Economic Recovery and Development: The Khartoum Declaration, Khartoum, 5-8 March, 1988; ECA, African Alternative Framework to Structural Adjustment Programmes for Socio-Economic Recovery and Transformation (AAF-SAP), E/ECA/CM.15/6/Rev.3, 1989; ECA, Handbook for Manpower Planners in Africa, ECA/PHSD/HRP/89/26(6.1(iii)(a)), 1989; and ILO/JASPA, African Employment Reports, 1988 and 1989, Addis Ababa.

information (LMI), financial and manpower constraints continue to undermine the effectiveness of human resources planning; expenditure on health and educational services continue to be given lower priority; and food self-sufficiency has yet to be attained.

3. In the context of such problems, the objective of this report is to analyze the status and the nature of human resources planning, development and utilization in Africa with a view to suggesting policy options for socio-economic development and transformation.

STATUS OF HUMAN RESOURCES PLANNING

A. MANPOWER PLANNING, EDUCATION AND TRAINING

(i) Manpower Planning

4. To the extent that "manpower planning is conceived as a mechanism for matching skill requirements (labour demand) to development plan targets and employment planning is concerned with labour supply and the interaction with labour demand, unemployment, underemployment, labour incomes and income distribution",[3] the objectives of human resources planning are basically two:[4] (a) to assess the skilled manpower needs of an economy within a given time period and to determine the skills imbalance and how this could be resolved; and (b) to provide an analytical framework within which human resources planning could guide educational planning and investment in education, training and manpower development.

5. Evidence from JASPA studies in Africa show that a number of African countries did not have a clearly thought-out manpower policy.[5] Instead of focusing on the important issues of how employment and income distribution objectives could be integrated in decisions on agricultural development, industrialization, wages, incomes and fiscal policies, etc., manpower planners in

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[3] A. Unthoff and E. Pernia, An Introduction to Human Resources Planning in Developing Countries, Geneva: ILO, 1986, cited in ILO/JASPA, African Employment Report 1988, Addis Ababa: ILO, 1989, p. 99.

[4] ILO/JASPA, ibid., p. 100.

[5] Ibid., p. 101.

Africa continue to be preoccupied with demand and long-term skill forecasts which have become outmoded.

6. A number of factors have contributed to undermining the status of human resources planning in Africa:[6]

a. Manpower planners do not contribute to policy making in the labour market as they are not provided with long-term objectives by the policy-makers. Where such directives are given, these are often too vague to be of any use for a manpower policy.

b. Manpower planning is not integrated with national development planning. As such senior government officials have little confidence in manpower planning. This impedes the development of manpower planning. Among the factors which contribute to this lack of confidence in manpower planning are the lack of understanding of the manpower techniques; past inaccuracies and an excessive quantitative approach to educational planning.

c. Inadequate administrative and institutional machinery which is often fragmented as a result of lack of co-ordination. This emanates largely from the fact that many African countries have not developed a national educational and training system which clearly states who is responsible for what.

d. The economic crisis of the 1980s forced many an African country to adopt the orthodox SAPs which, among other things, invariably meant a reduction of public expenditure on the social services such as health, education, food subsidies, etc. In its wake, financial constraints meant that human resources development institutions were in a weaker position to effect the necessary policies and programmes. Further, in the context of economic and political instability that ensued, meaningful planning became quite difficult as so many variables were changing simultaneously.

(ii) Education and Training

7. In the wake of the economic crisis that engulfed the African continent in the 1980s, enrolment in the educational system registered an overall negative growth. The supply of teaching staff also registered negative growth over the 1980s. Table 1 and figures 1 and 2 show that the total annual growth rate of enrolment in the educational system fell from 2.2 per cent per annum in the 1975-80 period to 1.3 per cent in the 1980-88 period. This represented a fall

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[6]Ibid., pp. 103-104.

of about 69 per cent between the two time periods -- the highest fall when compared to other regions of the world (figure 1).

8. A similar picture also emerges with regard to teaching staff. Figure 2 shows that Africa's stock of teaching staff declined by the highest margin between the two time periods. The African situation compares very unfavourably to such regions as Oceania where the structure of education shifted from being primary based (level 1) to secondary based (level 2). Figure 3 shows further that Africa's desire to widen the skilled manpower base will take, if ever, a very long time to achieve. Primary education still accounts for three-quarters of the total enrolment in the African educational system. The share of higher education (level 3) at 2.3 per cent was much lower than that of Oceania at 10.6 per cent and Asia at 3.5 per cent.[7] It follows, therefore, that one of the major problems affecting Africa's higher education is that of limited access.

9. Africa's educational system's weakness with regard to the supply of technical and scientific manpower is demonstrated in table 4. The proportion of technical subjects in total secondary education enrolment (SECTE%) is, by any standard, quite low. Except for five countries (Gabon, Egypt, Cameroon, Zaire and Djibouti) where the share of technical subjects in the 1986-88 period ranges from 20 to 25 per cent, all other countries shown in the table have shares below 5 per cent. For sub-Saharan Africa as a whole, only 4.4 per cent of total secondary education is enroled in technical subjects.

10. There is a certain amount of irrelevance in Africa's higher education vis-a-vis Africa's development priorities. Course offerings are still heavily biased in favour of the liberal arts as opposed to science, engineering, agriculture, medicine and management which are the fields which are critical to socio-economic development in Africa. The enrolment in

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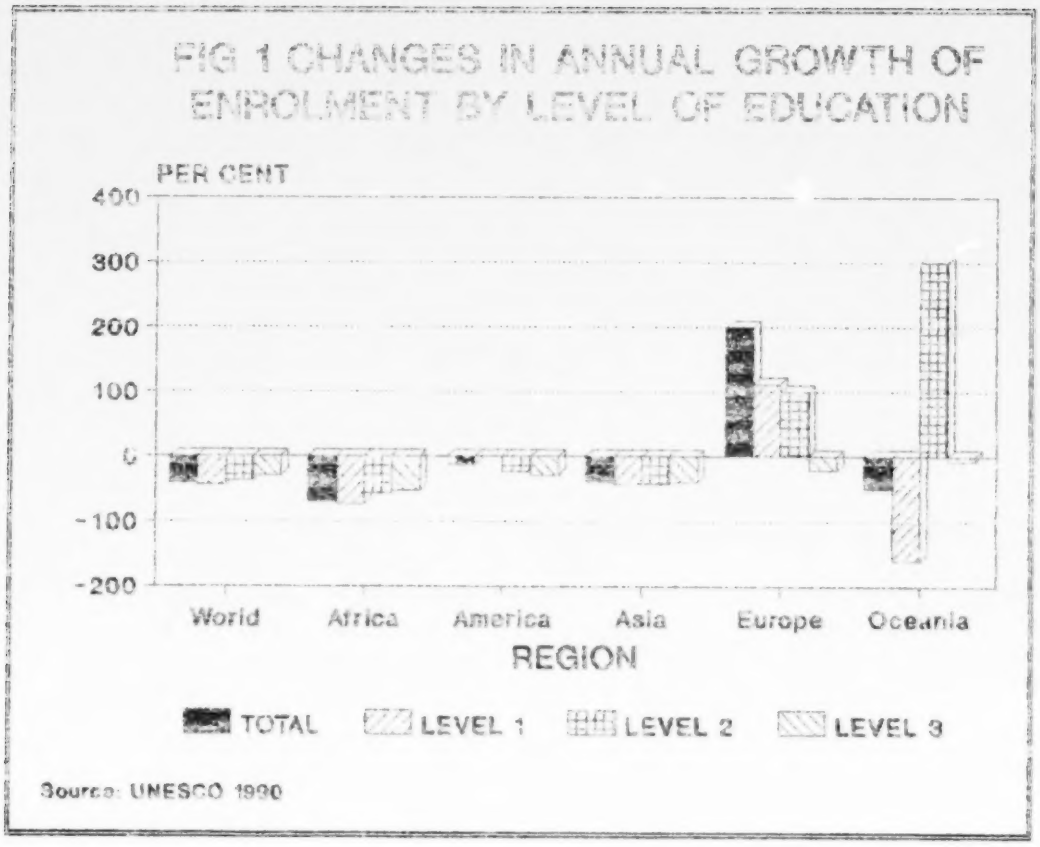
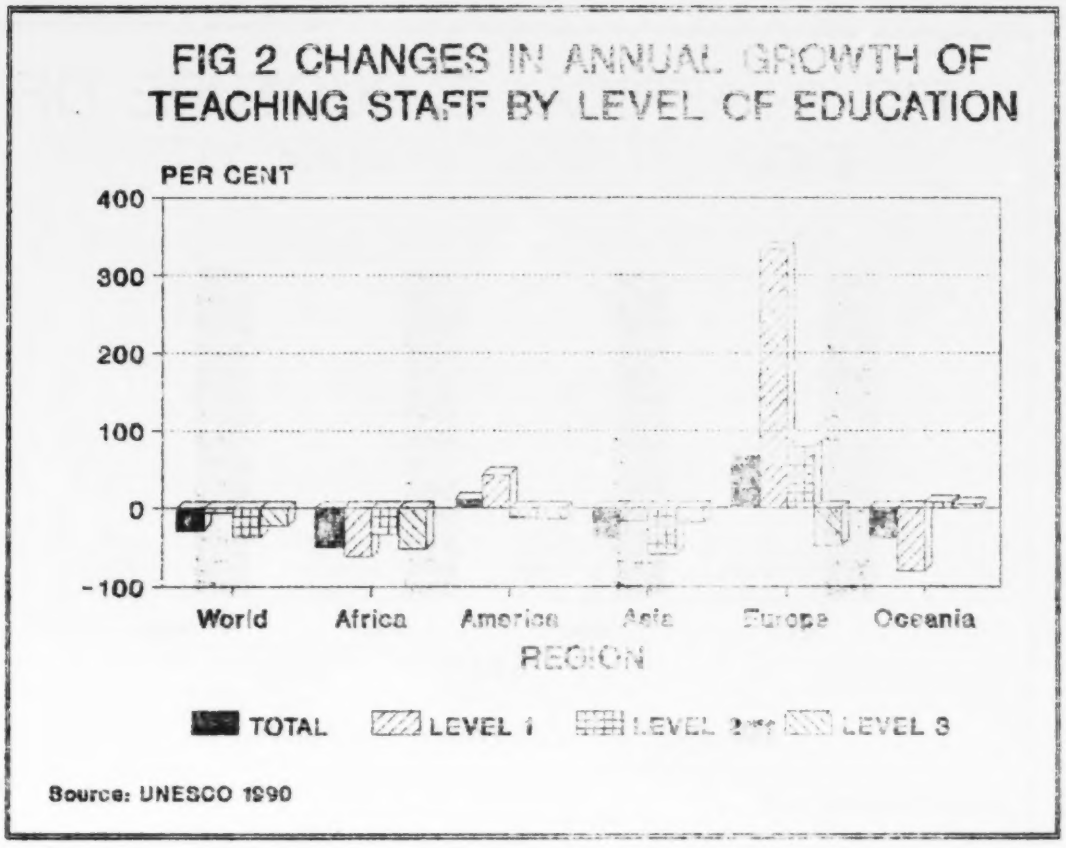
[7] See UNESCO, 1990 Statistical Yearbook, table 2.2.



scientific subjects at the tertiary level (TERSE%) is, for a continent which has such immerse basic problems, also very low. Except for Morocco, Togo and Guinea which have over 50 per cent of scientific enrolment, all other countries shown in the table have less than 50 per cent -- with the average for sub-Saharan Africa at 27 per cent.

11. The objectives of socio-economic transformation and long-term development in Africa present formidable challenges to Africa's higher education system. Prospects for socio-economic transformation and long-term development will only be enhanced to the extent that Africa's human resources base is expanded and strengthened to enable it spearhead and sustain transformation and development. African governments have, themselves, acknowledged the urgent necessity for strategies, policies and programmes to be put in place to alleviate mass poverty; increase food self-sufficiency; industrial output; strengthen inter-sectoral linkages; reduce dependence on imports of production inputs, consumer goods and the export of primary commodities for foreign



exchange earnings; and promote regional co-operation and integration.[8]

12. Self-reliant and self-sustained development to which all governments of the region are committed, are predicated on the attainment of these objectives. These in turn are dependent on the availability, not so much of money, but of factor inputs such as entrepreneurship, management capacity, manpower, production infrastructure, institutional infrastructure, technology, etc. which are all directly or indirectly the products of higher education systems.[9]

13. Unfortunately, however, higher education systems in Africa are still not yet so oriented as to be easily disposed to fulfilling this very important role

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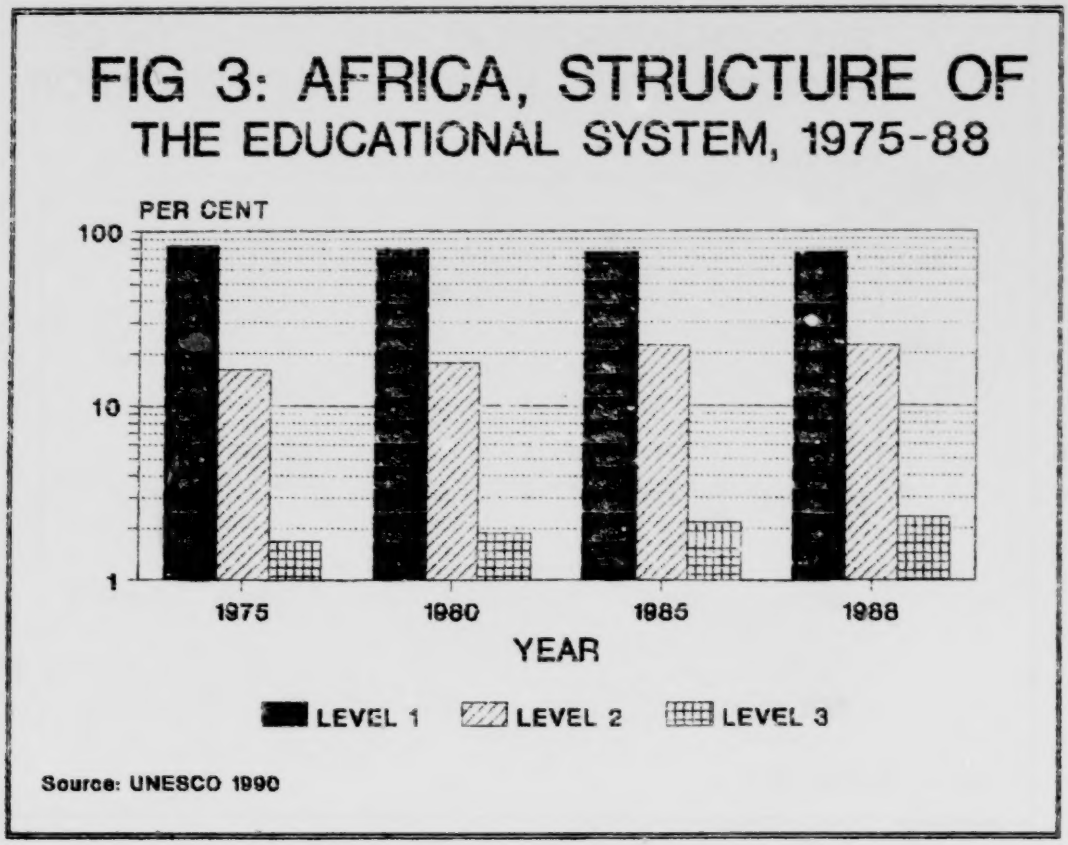
[8]See ECA, African Alternative Framework to Structural Adjustment Programmes for Socio-Economic Recovery and Transformation (AAF-SAP), Addis Ababa, 1989.

[9]ECA, ECA/PHSD/HRP/89/5[6.3(ii) b], Higher Education and the Future of Africa in the 21st Century The Role of the Institutions of Higher Learning in Responding to Africa's Development Needs and Priorities, Paper Presented to the Fourth Conference of Vice-Chancellors, Presidents and Rectors of Institutions of Higher Learning in Africa, Cairo, Egypt, 28-29 January, 1989, p. 1.



in Africa's socio-economic transformation and development. The imbalances are many: the bias of the programmes offered in institutions of higher learning does not mirror the expressed priorities of development in that it gives less weight to the critical fields of science, technology, agriculture, medicine, engineering and management; access to higher education is still too limited to achieve the minimum spread necessary to ensure that development is internalized and sustained within African society; higher education is itself too dependent on external sources for teaching and research resources and the origination of knowledge and know-how; research, especially, applied research, is at too low a level to contribute in any meaningful way to the search for solutions to African development problems; the interface between university and the community at large is far from being adequate.

Table 2: Africa: Projected Post-Graduate Student Enrolment by Field of Engineering

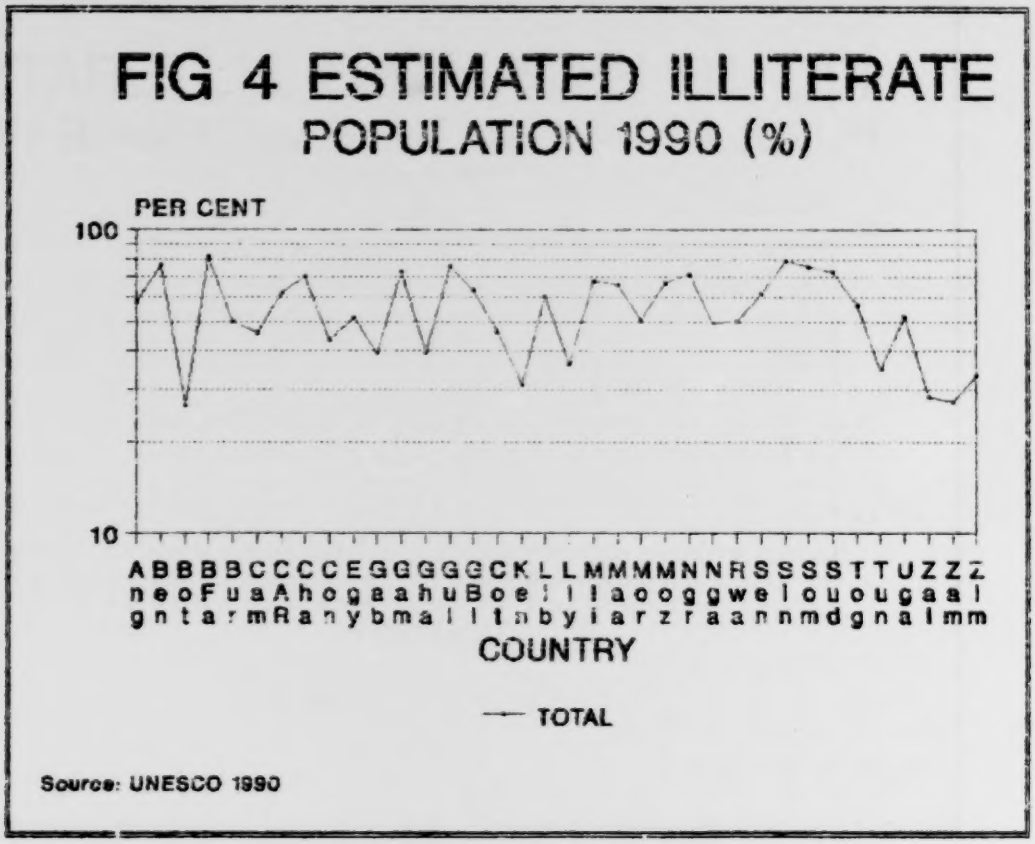
Field of Engineering		81/82	82/83	83/84	84/85	85/86	86/87	87/88	88/89	89/90	Total
Agricultural	MSc	58	75	89	95	99	104	104	104	104	832
	PhD	13	22	28	35	39	43	44	44	44	314
Civil	MSc	39	61	77	89	97	102	110	110	110	785
	PhD	2	6	11	15	18	19	21	21	21	134
Electrical	MSc	29	65	74	81	83	85	85	85	85	677
	PhD	2	4	11	15	18	18	18	18	18	122
Mechanical	MSc	30	60	68	78	76	78	90	92	92	656
	PhD	-	-	4	8	12	12	16	16	16	84
Metallurgy	MSc	6	12	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	123
	PhD	-	-	-	2	5	5	5	5	5	27
Water Res.	MSc	16	40	60	82	97	108	116	119	119	755
	PhD	-	-	2	5	9	14	18	21	24	93
Chemical	MSc	-	-	4	8	12	15	15	15	15	84
	PhD	-	-	-	1	3	5	5	5	5	24
Energy	MSc	-	3	4	6	8	12	15	15	15	84
	PhD	-	-	2	2	5	6	6	6	6	36
Mining	MSc	-	-	4	8	12	15	15	15	15	77
	PhD	-	-	-	1	3	5	5	5	5	24
TOTAL	MSc	168	315	400	454	499	538	565	569	569	4077
	PhD	17	32	60	86	111	127	138	141	144	859

Source: UNESCO, Africa Network of Scientific and Technological Institutions, (Nairobi: UNESCO, 1979).

TABLE 3: ESTIMATED ILLITERATE POPULATION 1990 (%)

COUNTRY	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
Angola	58.3	44.4	71.5
Benin	76.6	68.3	84.4
Botswana	26.4	16.3	34.6
Burkina Faso	81.8	72.1	91.1
Burundi	50.0	39.1	60.2
Cameroon	45.9	33.7	57.4
CAR	62.3	48.2	75.1
Chad	70.2	57.8	82.1
Congo	43.4	30.0	56.1
Egypt	51.6	37.1	66.2
Gabon	39.3	26.5	51.5
Gambia	72.8	61.0	84.0
Ghana	39.7	30.0	49.0
Guinea	76.0	65.1	86.6
Guinea Bissau	63.5	49.8	76.0
Cote D'Ivoire	46.2	33.1	59.8
Kenya	31.0	20.2	41.5
Liberia	60.5	50.2	71.2
Libya	36.2	24.6	49.6
Mali	68.0	59.2	76.1
Mauritania	66.0	52.9	78.6
Morocco	50.5	38.7	62.0
Mozambique	67.1	54.9	78.7
Niger	71.6	59.6	83.2
Nigeria	49.3	37.7	60.5
Rwanda	49.8	36.1	62.9
Senegal	61.7	48.1	74.9
Sierra Leone	79.3	69.3	88.7
Somalia	75.9	63.9	86.0
Sudan	72.9	57.3	88.3
Togo	56.7	43.6	69.3
Tunisia	34.7	25.8	43.7
Uganda	51.7	37.8	65.1
Zaire	28.2	16.4	39.3
Zambia	27.2	19.2	34.7
Zimbabwe	33.1	26.3	39.7
AVERAGES	54.87	43.18	66.10

Source: UNESCO 1990 Statistical Yearbook.



14. Higher education in Africa has neither clearly defined its role nor has it worked out a strategy for applying its knowledge, expertise and research capabilities to assist governments to deal with the severe socio-economic problems facing Africa today. Professor Kamba[10] argues that, historically, African universities were basically transplants from Europe and were "in Africa and not of Africa". They continue to draw their inspiration from the west and in the process neglect the needs of their own societies. Yet the role of a university is to serve the community and society at large. To date, the products of African universities are wanting in skills and orientation that are required to help Africa solve its economic and social problems.

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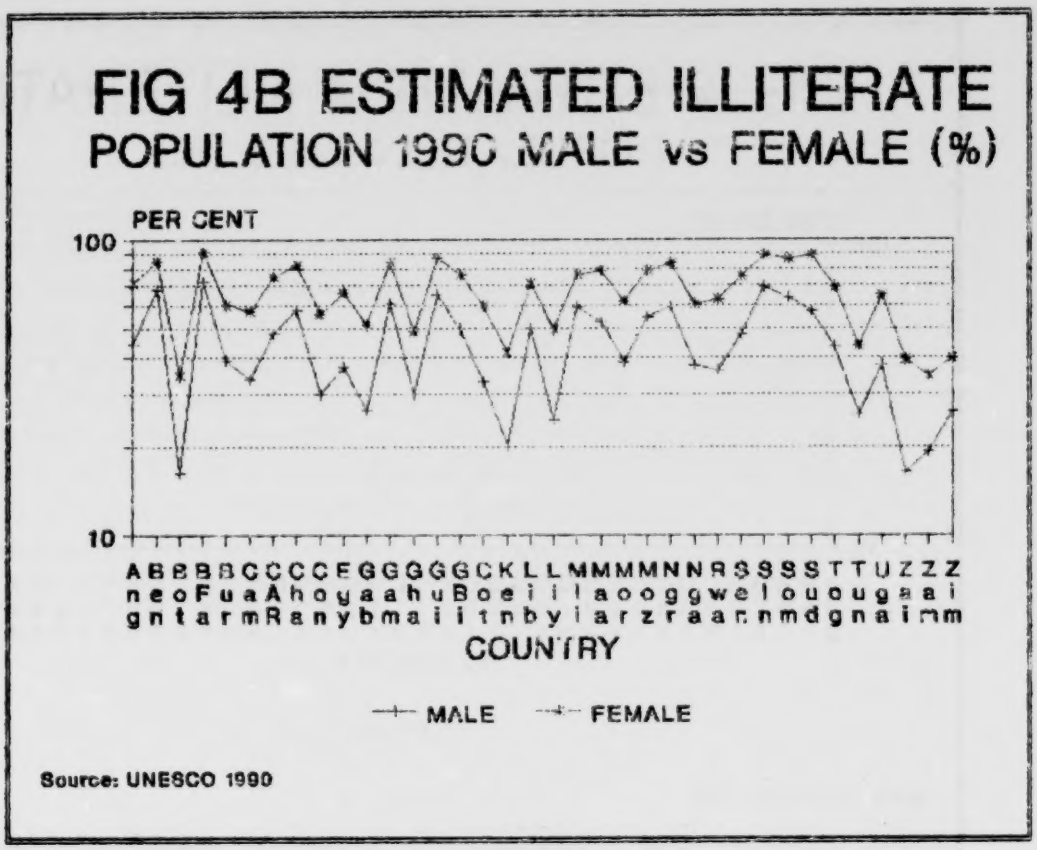
[10]W.J. Kamba, "The responsiveness of Institutions of Higher Learning to Africa's rapidly deteriorating social and economic conditions: Some initial observations" Paper presented to the Second Conference of Vice-Chancellors, Presidents and Rectors of Institutions of Higher Learning in Africa, Mbabane, Swaziland, 18-22 February, 1985.



15. Data from UNESCO (1990) show that higher education in Africa in the late 1980s had about 60 per cent of its enrolment devoted to courses in liberal arts and 40 per cent to scientific subjects. This ratio is about the same as in the early 1960s when the need for government public administrators and for indigenizing the public service was of high priority. Of late, however, the development priority has shifted, placing emphasis on scientific and technical skills. But the structure of higher education does not seem to have changed to reflect these new priorities. If this trend continues, it is difficult to see how the objectives of AAF-SAP (of human centred development by alleviating poverty and raising welfare of the people; establishing self-sustaining process of economic-growth and development; and increasing national and regional integration so as to attain self-reliance) and the Lagos Plan of Action, could be achieved.

16. Education for its own sake, is a luxury Africa can ill afford. Higher education in Africa should produce skills and knowledge that can be used more effectively to solve some of the region's development problems. In the recent past, problems of desertification and frequent droughts have afflicted many

countries in the continent. Yet, only few African countries offer courses in hydrology, water resources and irrigation engineering.[11]

17. At present, Africa has the lowest number of scientists and engineers engaged in R & D per million inhabitants. UNESCO data (1990) shows that Africa's stocks of scientists and engineers was 2,593 and 3,451 in 1980 and 1985, respectively, much lower than the average for developing countries at 6,272 and 8,263; Asia at 8,944 and 11,686; Latin America at 9,754 and 11,759; etc. With such a low endowment of scientists and engineers, Africa's ability to use science and technology in the service of development is very much limited.

18. On the other hand, table 2 shows the projected post-graduate enrolment by field of engineering for the period 1981/82 to 1989/90. While these figures are indicative of the trend, it would, by all accounts, seem that the actual enrolment and numbers of graduates in post-graduate engineering has been low in Africa in the 1980s. There is a clear need for intensifying engineering training at post-graduate level so as to increase the technical skill base necessary for socio-economic transformation.

19. The above statistical analysis clearly show that Africa's desire to change the educational system to suit the socio-economic needs and, thereby, to transform and develop the continent would, for a long time, be largely unattainable. The scientific skills necessary to transform the agricultural, industrial and the social sectors will not be forthcoming, given the nature of the educational system, in the short-term.

20. The quality of education has also suffered in the 1980s. The reduced budgetary allocations to the educational sector have reduced vital educational supplies such as books, laboratory equipment and supplies, magazines, foodstuffs, etc. The lack of these vital supplies means that those who leave the educational system are less qualified than their certificates purport to show.

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[11]See ECA, "Africa's Socio-Economic Crisis: The Challenge to Institutions of Higher Learning" E/ECA/AAU/ED/85/8, Paper Presented to the Second Conference of Vice-Chancellors... op. cit. p. 12.

21. The quality of education is further eroded by the lack of quality research in higher education; reduced morale among teaching staff due to poor conditions of service; increasing student-teacher ratios and reduced transition rates.[12]

22. As a consequence of rapid population growth and reduced public expenditure on education, table 3 and figure 4 show that the estimated proportion of the population which is illiterate in 1990, in some African countries, range from 27 per cent in Zambia to about 82 per cent in Burkina Faso. The average of 55 per cent illiteracy rate for the thirty-six countries listed in the table is, by world standards, quite low. The problem of illiteracy is, in Africa, most pronounced among women (see fig 4B): about two thirds of women in the countries listed in table 3 are illiterate as opposed to an average of about 43 per cent for men. The proportion of women who are illiterate ranges from about 35 per cent in Botswana and Zambia to about 88 per cent in the Sudan and Sierra Leone. Such statistics in the last decade of the 20th Century are far from encouraging in terms of human resources development and utilization. This dismal illiteracy situation is not surprising as table 5 shows that as many as 19 million children in Nigeria had no access to schools in 1990; 11 million in Ethiopia, 5 million in the Sudan, 5 million in Tanzania, 4 million in Morocco, etc.

B. HEALTH AND FOOD SITUATION

23. One major prerequisite for human resources development is the health and food situation in the region. Except for Mauritius in the 1985-87 period, no other African country listed in table 4 provided health services to its entire population. In countries such as Cote D'Ivoire, Rwanda, Angola, Mauritania, Somalia, Benin, Chad, Mali and Guinea over three-quarters of the population had no access to modern health services. In the sub-Saharan Africa region only about 47 per cent of the total population had access to health services. Table 5 shows that as of 1990, a third or more of the population had no access to modern health services in 25 African countries. In countries such as Benin and Mali, 83 and 85 per cent of the population, respectively, had no access to modern health facilities.

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[12]For a detailed discussion of these see UN Economic and Social Council, ECA, Report to the Ministerial Follow-Up Committee of Ten of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization on the Status, Policies and Programmes of Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization in Africa, E/ECA/PHSD/HRP/MFC/90/4, April, 1990.

Table 4 Some Human Resources Development Indicators in Africa in the 1980s

COUNTRY	POP ACC HEALTH 86-87	POP PER DOCTOR 1984	POP PER NURSE 1984	PUB HEALTH EXP %GNP 1986	FPPCI 1979-81 1989	AGRP% GDP88	DCS%RQ 84-86	FIOR% 86-88	SRCTR% 86-88	TERSR% 87-88	RATIO MILITARY 1986
Mauritius	100	1900	580	1.9	94	13	121	77.6	1.3		4
Botswana	89	6900	700	3.8	69	3	96	83.7	5.9	26	18
Gabon	90	2790	270	2.0	72	11	107	34	20.6	22	56
Algeria	90	2340	330	2.2	93	13	112	70.7	4.9	14	23
Swaziland	80		700		93		105	27.4	1.4		
Lesotho	80	18610		1.7	72	21	101	52.3	3.7	16	44
Morocco	74	15580	920	0.9	125	17	118	28.1	1.4	59	86
Cape Verde		5800	700		105		125	66.2	8.3		
Zimbabwe	72	6700	1000	2.9	94	11	89	4.7	3.9	32	44
S Tome & Pri.	80	2500	600		67		103	43.1	1.4		
Kenya		9970	950	1.7	103	31	92	10.6	1.6	21	15
Egypt		770	780	1.1	107	21	133	45.2	21.8	38	135
Congo	81	8320	590	2.0	96	15	117	28.2	11.9	8	66
Madagascar	56	9780		1.8	92	41	106	7.4	4.3	30	45
Zambia	75	7150	740	1.2	96	14	92	22.1			94
Cameroon	41			0.8	95	26	88	14.2	22.5	35	45
Ghana	61	14890	640	1.2	111	49	76	9.9	1.9	30	19
Côte d'Ivoire	31			1.1	92	36	110	20.5	9.8	28	20
Zaire	26			0.8	92	31	98	5.7	23.1	34	250
Comoros	82				109		98	30.7	1.4		
Tanzania	81	26200	8130	1.2	90	66	96	4.4		9	114
Nigeria	46	7990	1020	0.2	95	34	90	6.7		30	63
Togo	61	8700	1240	1.7	93	34	97	17.8	5.9	52	39
Liberia	39	9340	1370	1.9	92	37	102	24			35
Rwanda	28	34680	3650	0.6	72	38	81	6.6		25	50
Uganda	60	21900	2060	0.2	85	72	95	1.4	2.5	41	247
Senegal	40	13060	2030	1.1	103	22	99	30.2	2.9	31	40
Malawi		11330	3110	1.9	86	37	102	2.7	3.5	37	45
Burundi	61	21120	3040	0.7	88	56	97	3.8	19.1	45	100
Ethiopia	46	60000	5400	1.3	91	42	71		0.5	37	172
CAR	45	23530	2210	1.2	90	44	86	7.7	4.4	34	26
Sudan	51	10100	1250	0.2	83	33	88	14.5		27	140
Mozambique	49	37960	5760	1.8	82	62	69		8	25	
Angola	30	17790	1020	1.0	80		82			26	273
Mauritania	30	12120	1330	1.9	87	38	92	57.2	3.1	12	62
Somalia	28	16080	1530	0.2	97	65	90	33.7		18	71
Benin	18	15940	1750	0.8	110	40	95	9.3	6	18	53
Guinea-Bissau		7500	1100		139		92	18.2	8.8		
Chad	30	38360	3390	0.6	98	47	69	4.5	7	12	231
Djibouti	78	1000	300						25.3		
Burkina Faso	49	57220	1680	0.9	114	39	86	9.6	6.4	21	91
Niger	43	39730	4650	0.9	84	36	100	7.4	1.4	24	15
Mali	15	25390	1350	0.7	99	49	86	9.3	11.5	3	71
Guinea	32	46420	5180	1.0	88	30	77	15.2	6.3	59	75
Gambia		11600			95		103	55.4			
Sierra Leone		13630	1090	0.7	87	46	81	20.1			32
AVERAGE	55.6	17138.8	1897.2	1.3	93.6	34.7	95.6	24.6	7.5	27.7	
All Dev'ng	63	4590	1010	1.4	111	19	107	9.6	9.6	32	109
LDCs	46	21410	4910	0.9	95	42	89	11.6	1.8	31	96
SSA	47	22930	2670	0.9	96	23	91	10	4.4	27	70

Source: UNDP 1991 Human Development Report and UNICEF, The State of the World's Children, 1991

24. A similar situation obtains with regard to access to safe drinking water and sanitation. Table 5 shows that a third or more of the population in 35 African countries had no access to safe drinking water in 1990. In the same year, a third or more of the population had no access to proper sanitary facilities in 23 African countries. With such poor health provision, it is no wonder that diseases such as malaria, cholera, typhoid, etc., whose incidence was reduced have started to increase. More seriously, the AIDS epidemic is having a catastrophic toll on the African population not only because a cure for it has not been found but because health services provision in Africa have all but disintegrated.

25. In terms of population per doctor, table 4 shows that only Egypt had, in 1984, less than 1000 people per doctor. Burkina Faso at 57,220 and Ethiopia at 60,000 had the highest proportions of the population per doctor. Compared to All Developing Countries and LDCs, respectively, Sub-Saharan Africa compares very unfavourably. As many as 880 thousand children died before reaching the age of five years in Nigeria in 1990; 540 thousand in Ethiopia; 210 thousand in Zaire; etc. (see table 5 -- U5M). This comes as no surprise for public expenditure on health services as a percentage of GNP (table 4) is very low in many African countries (less than 2 per cent for most countries and 0.9 per cent for Sub-Saharan Africa). In a continent which is characterised by a host of different tropical diseases and in which more than half of the population have no access to health services, such low expenditure on health services continue to undermine human resources development.

26. The irony of the African situation is that many governments spend more on the low priority area of the military than on human resources development (education and health). Except for Mauritius which spends 4 times more on the military than on the combined expenditure on education and health, all the other 47 African countries listed in table 4 spent, in 1986, at least 18 times (in the case of Botswana) on the military than on education and health. Zaire, Uganda and Chad spent over 200 times on the military than they did on education and health.

27. Food production in the Africa region has been on the decline. With 1979-81 as the base period, the food production per capita index (FPPCI) had fallen to 96 by 1989 for the sub-Saharan Africa region. For the countries listed in table 4, average FPPCI for 1989 was about 94. Out of the 46 countries listed in the table, only nine countries managed to increase their FPPCI (i.e., over 100). This dismal situation is further demonstrated by the inadequacy of daily calorie supply as a percentage of requirements (DCS%RQ) which shows that in 29 African countries, this variable was below 100.

Table 5 AFRICA: 1990 PROFILE OF HUMAN DEPRIVATION

COUNTRY	Millions								Per Cent of Population				
	NO HEALTH ACCESS	NO WATER ACCESS	NO SANIT. ACCESS	CHILD DEN	CHILD NO SCHOOL	ILLITE-RATE ADULTS	BELOW POVERTY LINE	RST. POP.	NO HEALTH ACCESS	NO WATER ACCESS	NO SANIT. ACCESS	ILLITE-RATE ADULTS	BELOW POVERTY LINE
Mauritius	0.00	0.10	0.30	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.10	1.10	0.00	9.09	0.00	9.09	9.09
Botswana	0.10	0.50	0.80	0.01	0.10	0.20	0.70	1.30	7.69	38.46	61.54	15.38	53.85
Gabon	0.10	0.40		0.01		0.30		1.20	8.33	33.33	0.00	25.00	0.00
Algeria	2.40	7.40	9.80	0.09	1.50	7.20		25.00	9.60	29.60	39.20	28.80	0.00
Swaziland	0.20	0.40	0.40	0.01	0.00	0.10	0.40	0.80	25.00	50.00	50.00	12.50	50.00
Lesotho	0.40	0.90	1.50	0.01	0.10	0.30	1.00	1.80	22.22	50.00	83.33	16.67	55.56
Morocco	6.50	9.80		0.10	3.70	8.70	9.30	25.10	25.90	39.04	0.00	34.66	37.05
Cape Verde		0.10	0.30	0.00	0.00	0.10		0.40	0.00	25.00	75.00	25.00	0.00
Zimbabwe	2.70			0.04	0.20	2.00		9.70	27.84	0.00	0.00	20.62	9.00
S Tome & Pri.								0.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Kenya		16.70		0.13	2.40	4.20	11.20	24.00	0.00	69.58	0.00	17.50	46.67
Egypt		14.30		0.16	2.90	17.70	12.50	52.40	0.00	27.29	0.00	33.78	23.85
Congo	0.40	1.80		0.01		0.50		2.30	17.39	78.26	0.00	21.74	0.00
Madagascar	5.30	6.10		0.10	1.60	1.50	6.00	12.00	44.17	67.50	0.00	12.50	50.00
Zambia	2.10	3.40	3.80	0.05	0.80	1.40		8.50	24.71	40.00	44.71	16.47	0.00
Cameroon	7.00	8.10		0.08	1.00	3.30	3.30	11.80	59.32	68.64	0.00	27.97	27.97
Ghana	5.90	6.50	10.10	0.10	2.00	3.90	6.60	15.00	39.33	43.32	69.33	26.00	44.00
Côte d'Ivoire	8.30	9.80	7.20	0.08		3.30	3.50	12.00	69.17	81.67	60.00	27.50	29.17
Zaire	26.30	23.60	30.60	0.21		6.60		35.60	73.88	66.29	85.96	18.54	0.00
Comoros	0.10			0.00	0.10	0.10		0.60	16.67	0.00	0.00	16.67	0.00
Tanzania	5.20	12.20	9.40	0.24	5.00			27.30	19.05	44.69	34.43	0.00	0.00
Nigeria	58.60	56.30		0.88	19.00	33.40		108.50	54.19	51.89	0.00	30.78	0.00
Togo	1.40	1.00	2.70	0.02	0.40	1.20		3.50	40.00	28.57	77.14	34.29	0.00
Liberia	1.60	1.10		0.03		0.90		2.60	61.54	42.31	0.00	34.62	0.00
Rwanda	5.20	2.60	3.10	0.07	1.30	2.00	6.30	7.20	72.22	36.11	43.06	27.78	86.11
Uganda	7.40	15.00	13.10	0.16	3.10	5.40		18.80	39.36	79.79	69.68	28.72	0.00
Senegal	4.40	3.40		0.06	1.40	2.80		7.30	60.27	46.58	0.00	38.36	0.00
Malawi		3.90		0.13	1.20	2.60	6.60	8.80	0.00	44.32	0.00	29.55	75.00
Burundi	2.10	3.40	2.30	0.05	1.10	1.70	4.50	5.50	38.18	61.82	41.82	30.91	81.82
Ethiopia	56.60	40.10	40.10	0.54	10.90		30.10	49.20	54.07	81.50	81.50	0.00	61.18
CAR	1.70	2.70		0.03	0.50	1.10		3.00	56.67	90.00	0.00	36.67	0.00
Sudan	12.30	19.90		0.19	4.90	10.40		25.20	48.81	78.97	0.00	41.27	0.00
Mozambique	8.00	11.90	11.80	0.21	3.00	6.50		15.70	50.96	75.80	75.16	40.13	0.00
Angola	7.00	6.50	7.90	0.14		3.50		10.00	70.00	65.00	79.00	36.00	0.00
Mauritania	1.40	0.70		0.02	0.40	0.80		2.00	70.00	35.00	0.00	40.00	0.00
Somalia	5.40	4.90	6.10	0.08	2.00	3.30	4.50	7.50	72.00	65.33	81.33	44.00	60.00
Benin	3.80	3.00	3.00	0.03	0.80	2.00		4.60	82.61	65.22	65.22	43.48	0.00
Guinea-Bissau		0.80	0.80	0.01	0.20	0.40		1.00	0.00	80.00	80.00	40.00	0.00
Chad	4.00			0.05	1.40	3.50	2.70	5.70	70.18	0.00	0.00	43.86	47.37
Djibouti	0.10	0.20	0.10	0.00	0.10	0.20	0.10	0.40	25.00	50.00	25.00	50.00	25.00
Burkina Paso	4.60	3.00	8.30	0.10	2.10	4.30		9.00	51.11	33.33	92.22	47.78	0.00
Niger	4.40			0.09	1.80	2.90		7.70	57.14	0.00	0.00	37.66	0.00
Mali	7.80	5.70	7.30	0.14	2.40	3.90	4.10	9.20	84.78	61.96	79.35	42.39	44.57
Guinea	3.90	3.90		0.07	1.60	3.20		5.80	67.24	67.24		55.17	0.00
Gambia		0.20		0.01	0.10	0.40		0.90		22.22		44.44	0.00
Sierra Leone		2.40	2.40	0.05	0.80	2.00		4.20		57.14	57.14	47.62	0.00

Source: UNDP 1991 Human Development Report.

28. The shortage of foodstuffs in many African countries is further demonstrated by the food import dependency ratio (FIDR%) over the 1986 to 1988 period. Over this period, 14 African countries depended on imports for a quarter or more of their food supplies. In the context of the deteriorating terms of trade which afflicted the African continent during the 1980s, such a dependency has proved to be costly in terms of foreign exchange and may have further acted to aggravate the debt burden problems.

C. WAGES AND EMPLOYMENT

29. The Africa region, over the 1980s, faced a dismal situation with regard to employment, real wages and standards of living. While the labour force was estimated to be growing at an average annual rate of 3 per cent between 1980 and 1990,[13] the share of the labour force in wage employment fell from an average of 10 per cent in 1980 to less than 5 per cent by 1990.[14] As a consequence, unemployment rates were estimated to be between 15 and 20 per cent in the mid 1980s, up from about 10 per cent in the middle of the 1970s.[15] Underemployment in the rural agricultural sector is estimated by the ECA to affect about 90 million people in the African region.

30. The standards of living, especially for modern sector wage employees, was eroded in the 1980s. The 1990 Africa Employment report estimates that overall, real wages fell by about 10 per cent per annum between 1980 and 1990. Real minimum wages in many African countries fell below the food poverty line and real wages in general fell below the "efficiency level".[16] The fall in real wages was much steeper than the fall in average per capita incomes and, as a consequence, wage earners emerged worse off out of the 1980s economic crisis.

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[13]ILO/JASPA, African Employment Report 1988, (Addis Ababa: JASPA, 1989), p. 4.

[14]ILO/JASPA, African Employment Report 1990, (Addis Ababa: JASPA, 1990) p. 31. For individual countries, the report (p. 31) show that the absolute fall in wage employment ranged from 5.4 per cent in Zambia between 1980 and 1988 to 33.6 per cent in the Central African Republic between 1980 and 1986.

[15]ibid., p. 26.

[16]The 1990 Employment Report (p. 39) cite evidence which show, for example, that in Sierra Leone "In 1976/77 the average household in Freetown needed an equivalent of two government minimum wages to satisfy its food requirements. By early 1990, the same household required 17 government minimum wages to maintain its nutritional standards of 1976/77."

31. The fall in real wages coupled with a compression of the wage structure and the worsening in other social and political conditions in the African region forced many African technical and professional manpower to emigrate to other regions of the world where conditions were much better. Such massive brain drain proved costly on the African economy in terms of opportunity costs and the fact that Africa had, once again, to rely on the expensive expatriate manpower.

32. The causes of the above dismal situation are varied and many. They include, among others, the adoption of structural adjustment programmes, the fall in the world prices of primary exports, deteriorating terms of trade, high inflationary pressures, the mounting international debt crisis, rapid population growth, the lop-sided economic structure of the African region, the irrelevance of African education to development priorities, inadequate government policies, drought, etc.

33. The sluggish performance of domestic economies coupled with external financial imbalances such as persistent balance-of-payments and external debt servicing and repayment problems put many African economies in very difficult situations. These were, largely, a consequence of the fall in the real price of primary exports. To counter such problems many African economies adopted conditionality laden structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) of the World Bank and the IMF. Almost invariably, SAPs involved devaluation of the local currencies; cutting of government expenditures, especially on the social sector; removal of subsidies and price controls; reducing manpower strengths of the public sector; etc. Given the nature of the economic problems in the 1980s, many governments adopted short-term stop-gap measures to deal with the crises at hand. Long term perspectives were sacrificed.

34. The impact of SAPs on employment, real wages, cost of living, and on the capacity of African economies to sustain economic growth were, to put it mildly, quite catastrophic. While the operations of the African economies require some form of structural adjustment, the total disregard of the human dimension of the SAPs implemented in the 1980s caused a lot of suffering to a large majority of the African people. Such was the negative impact of the SAPs that an international conference on the human dimension of Africa's economic recovery and development held in Khartoum in 1988 recommended that the existing SAPs be

replaced by adjustment policies which are human centred and which use the human condition as the yardstick for measuring development.[17]

35. The spread of poverty intensified in the region in the 1980s. The 1990 World Bank World Development Report define US$275.00 and US$370.00 (in 1985 constant prices) as the lower and upper poverty datum lines, respectively. Data from the same report show that per capita GNP in Sub-Saharan Africa fell from an average of US$570 in 1980 to about US$330.00 in 1988. On the other hand, GDP per capita fell at an annual rate of about 2.2 per cent between 1980 and 1989.[18] This implies that the incidence of poverty increased in Africa in the 1980s. The worst affected by poverty include the rural dwellers, the women, and the urban unemployed and underemployed.

36. Table 5 shows that out of the 19 countries for which data exists on poverty, nine of them had more than half of their population living below the official poverty datum line. In Rwanda and Burundi, especially, over 80 per cent of their respective populations live below the poverty datum line. As demonstrated above, the extent of the spread of poverty and deprivation in Africa is depicted by the fact that very few African countries can afford to provide health services, safe water and sanitation to more than half of their respective populations.

37. The employment and poverty problems were further compounded by the rapid rate of population growth, the inability of the lop-sided economies of Africa to create more jobs, the deteriorating terms of trade of Africa vis-a-vis the rest of the world, and the massive resource transfers from Africa to the industrialised countries through debt repayments. Available evidence suggests that even if the formal wage employment sector used appropriate technologies, its capacity to generate employment opportunities to absorb the ever increasing labour force would still have been very limited. The existing industrial sector which has no meaningful domestic productive linkages was hit the hardest in the wake of mounting foreign exchange problems due to the fall in the world prices of primary exports. With the reduction in the strength of the public sector in many African countries, the unemployment problem became, in the 1980s, one of

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[17]See United Nations, The Khartoum Declaration: International Conference on the Human Dimension of Africa's Economic Recovery and Development, Khartoum, Sudan, 5-8 March, 1988.

[18]World Bank, World Development Report 1990: Poverty, (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 1990), p. 11. The fall in GDP per capita in Sub-Saharan Africa was the largest when compared to other regions of the world. In 1988, sixteen African countries had GNP per capita ranging from US$100 in Mozambique to US$370 in Kenya (p. 178).

the main issues confronting Africa. The agricultural and the urban informal sectors which have high labour absorptive capacities eased, somewhat, the extent of unemployment. But, given the low level of productivity in these sectors, low incomes obtained thus the spread of poverty became even more pronounced.

38. Despite its low productivity and low incomes, the informal sector provided livelihood to about 22 per cent of the urban labour force in 1985 (that is more than double the share of the formal wage employment). In terms of human capital formation, the informal sector is making some contribution to skill acquisition through its on-the-job training. The potential of the informal sector, however, is not only limited by lack of access to credit, unfavourable legislation, etc. but also by the fact that much of its activities centres around merchandising without creating new wealth. With changes in government policies towards the sector and improved access to credit and other factor inputs, there is every reason to expect the informal sector, through small-scale industries, to contribute positively to Africa's development endeavours.[19]

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[19]For a detailed discussion of the informal sector and how it can contribute to Africa's economic development, see ECA, Policies and Programmes for Creating Employment and Raising Incomes in the Informal Sector, ECA/PHSD/HRP/90/12[6.2(i)(a)], October, 1990.

HUMAN RESOURCES PLANNING FOR SOCIO-ECONOMIC RECOVERY AND DEVELOPMENT[20]

39. The objective function of human resources planing is to transform Africa from its current economic crises to self-sustained and self-sufficient economic growth and development. To do this, the human resources base needs to be broadened and deepened. The broadening and deepening of the human resources base can be attained through the following policies:

(a) making education relevant to the development needs,
(b) increasing investment in human resources such as education, health and food security,
(c) making human resources planning an integral part of the development planning process,
(d) raising self-confidence of the African population at the individual and national levels,
(e) increasing human resources utilisation by promoting and integrating the agricultural sector with other sectors of the economy,
(f) re-directing some of the resources currently being committed to, say, the military to the human development sector,
(g) negotiate with bilateral technical assistance agencies to consider shifting their training policies towards strengthening higher education in the recipient countries,
(h) where possible, introduce some form of human resources development tax on large corporations, and
(i) mount well co-ordinated public campaigns to raise public awareness on the need for increased expenditures on human development and its long-term benefits.

We now turn to look at some of the above policy suggestions in some details.

A MAKING EDUCATION RELEVANT

40. To make education relevant to the development needs of Africa would first require a change in the African attitude of dependency and the feeling of

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[20]This section is reproduced, for emphasis purposes, from ECA, Report to the Conference of African Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilisation on Human Resources Planning for Socio-Economic Recovery and Development, ECA/PHSD/HRP/90/21[6.1(II)]

helplessness that seem to affect the African society. To enhance the relevance of the educational system, interaction with other sectors of the economy through research, vacation employment, study visits, talks, etc. needs to be encouraged. Through these, institutions of learning at all levels should be made aware of what goes on in the real world. On the other hand, the labour market agents will also come to know how the educational systems functions and may therefore be in a position to make practical suggestions that may prove beneficial to both parties.

41. More importantly, given the low confidence in locally trained personnel, potential employers need to be made aware much, if at all, is being made to improve both the structure and quality of the educational system. For example, the lack of facilities in technical colleges can be compensated by placing students with industrial employers who might have the necessary infrastructure for practical training.

42. Not only does higher education need to increase the outputs of scientific and technical personnel but such training should be directed at solving the various problems Africa is faced with. Training aimed at problem-solving, creativity and tackling Africa's problem head on has the added benefit of increasing self-confidence and the breaking-up of the dependency culture that characterise contemporary African society. Such an approach, enhanced by increased practical training, will also help to minimise the paper qualifications syndrome.

B INCREASED INVESTMENT IN HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT

43. To enhance the capability of human resources to engineer the economic transformation process requires that more resources are committed to human capital. As a first step, and in the wake of the end of the cold war, the proportion of resources devoted to the armed forces should be reduced. While recent events in some African countries may make this impracticable, in the long-term, efforts should be directed at this source of resources for increased investment in training, health and increased food security.

44. Increased investment in human resources development would help to attain universal primary education and for higher education, increase the supply of middle- and high-level manpower to agriculture and industry. Increased literacy and numeracy skills of farmers would help to improve agricultural productivity. Among women, literacy may help to improve maternal and child health.

45. The funding for increased spending on human resources development can be secured from donor agencies which, hitherto, have been sending indigenous personnel to donor countries for further training. Through negotiations, such agencies might be persuaded to accept the fact that increased spending on training locally would make such training more relevant to local needs than would training which is given in a different environment.

46. Further, depending on the impact on allocative efficiency, taxation of big corporations which stand to benefit most from increased investment in human resources may be introduced to raise some of the necessary funds. To target such resources to human resources development, a special fund will need to be created so that all the funds collected through these means are channelled to the right places.

47. Increased investment into human resources development will come to nothing unless measures are taken to arrest the rapid population growth rates and to adopt policies that improve Africa's capacity to retain the high level manpower. The former can be attained by demonstrating to the general public that smaller families are in their own individual interests. Access to family planning devices and literature, should be increased; attitudes towards large families should also be changed.

48. Implementing measures to retain skilled manpower would not be so simple. Many African countries at the moment cannot offer pay packages that are even half of what their nationals earn in developed countries. Even where they can, political considerations, may make it impracticable. Instead, efforts should be directed at making conditions at home more conducive for nationals working abroad to return. Domestic production should be increased so as to reduce inflation and thereby improve the standard of living. African governments should also demonstrate their commitment to some forms of free expression, and show some preferance of local national expert opinions over and above those of expatriates.

C MAKING HUMAN RESOURCES PLANNING AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESS

49. As we have argued above, manpower planners in Africa are either not provided with long-term directives by policy-makers or where such directives are given, they are too vague to provide a basis for manpower policy. We also demonstrated that the inadequate administrative and institutional machinery makes systematic manpower planning difficult. As a consequence, manpower

planning is not integrated with the national development planning process. To plan human resources necessary for socio-economic recovery and development, manpower planning should be accorded the importance it deserves. Manpower planning should concentrate on making regular reports and the analysis of the labour market situations and trends, so as to provide an early warning system for labour market imbalances. In addition, manpower planning systems should pay more attention to the manpower and employment issues in the rural (agricultural) sector.

50. Unless there is a political commitment to the planning of human resources for agricultural development, the manpower planning function will continue to be ineffective and thus reduce the chances of economic transformation through agricultural development. Given the emphasis on agricultural development and self-sufficiency, educational and manpower planning should seek to make the requisite skills for these priority areas of fundamental importance.

D PROMOTING AND INTEGRATING THE AGRICULTURAL SECTOR WITH OTHER SECTORS OF THE ECONOMY

51. To promote and integrate the agricultural sector with the other sectors of the economy will require an increased supply of skilled and/or literate manpower. The neglect of the agricultural sector by the manpower planning authorities in the past has contributed to the stagnation of the sector.

52. To the extent that there are few local industries in Africa which produce agricultural implements such as hoes, ploughs, axes, etc., the informal sector (and/or small-scale industries) should be strengthened to provide such goods. The human resources planning process should therefore define a role for the informal sector/small-scale industries in the transformation of agriculture..

53. Much of the modern industrial activities in Africa consists of last stage processing and/or packaging. Increased agricultural production would therefore necessitate the establishment of first-stage processing such as ginneries, seed-oil crushing plants, etc. that could provide intermediate inputs to the existing industries. Such an increase in industrial activities would enhance internal productive linkages and improve the utilisation of human resources through increased employment.

54. To increase the usage of local raw materials and intermediate agricultural inputs, the usual complaints by TNCs of poor quality, etc. should not be entertained. If anything, such foreign exchange saved from reduced imports of

inputs can be used to increase investment in human resources development, particularly in education, literacy campaigns, health, etc.

CONCLUSION

55. This report has painted a very grim situation of the status of human resources planning, development and utilisation in Africa over the recent past. Among other things, it has argued that the human resources planning function is plagued with a host of problems ranging from the lack of clear cut guidelines, lack of coordination, etc., to its not being an integral part of the national development planning system.

56. On the other hand the report has shown the extent and magnitude of human deprivation in Africa. That more than half of the population in Africa have no access to health facilities, clean drinking water, etc. at the beginning of the last decade of the 20th Century should, in itself, be a source of major concern to those charged with human resources planning, development and utilisation. And, given the grimness of the situation, the report has reemphasized the policy options which need to be implemented if Africa is to graduate from its current socio-economic crisis. The policies proposed in this report may seem difficult to implement but given the nature of the problem, Africa may have to come up with novel solutions to some of its outstanding problems. This imperative cannot be overemphasized for there are millions of Africans who are, currently, barely surviving.